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ABSTRACT

A study was designed to compare the verbal responses of trained and untrained helpers confronted with the same crisis situation. The subjects were 24 trained graduate helpers, 24 untrained graduate helpers, and 24 untrained undergraduate helpers. Each subject was paired with an actor in one of the following conditions: male actor with male subject, male actor with female subject, female actor with female subject, and female actor with male subject. The actors simulated a crisis during an interview to elicit subject responses. Four raters viewed the 72 videotaped interactions and coded the verbal responses as understanding, evaluative, interpretive, self-disclosure, advising, diverting, reinforcing, or probing. Analysis indicated that trained helpers used probing and understanding responses most frequently while untrained helpers used probing, self-disclosing, and advising responses most frequently. Overall, the trained helpers responded less frequently than the untrained helpers, but female helpers responded more frequently than males regardless of training. Scores for the two untrained groups clustered together and tended to suggest that training, not age or maturity, accounts for the largest proportion of difference in communication behaviors. (Author/RL)

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A Comparative Analysis of Trained and Untrained Helpers' Communication Behaviors in Response to Crisis

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A Comparative Analysis of Trained and Untrained Helpers' Communication Behaviors in Response to Crisis

Psychologists and communication specialists have emphasized the therapeutic nature of communication (Authier, Gustafson, & Kasdorf, 1975; Costello, 1972; Miller, 1965; Rossiter, 1975; Ruesch, 1973; and Vaughn & Burgoon, 1976). Jackson (1968), who acknowedges the need for focus upon interpersonal communication in the therapeutic context, states that " . . . the analytic situation . . . is as real a situation for two person communication as any other" (p. 104). Fuller and Quesade (1973) claim that " . . . in the practice of all human therapeutics the effectiveness of communication between the participants in the system is a major determinant of whether that therapy succeeds" (p. 361).

Despite the acknowledged importance of interpersonal communication in a therapeutic context, the specific ways in which communication serves to accomplish or facilitate therapy are not well understood. Most research has focused on trained helpers with little attention to the communication behaviors of untrained helpers (see, for example, Bordin, 1955; Ruesch, 1963; and Schwartz, 1971). The focus on trained helpers to the exclusion of those who are untrained is somewhat surprising since people experiencing an actual or potential state of need or crisis do not turn to professional counselors first (McGee, 1968). Rather, they turn to friends (Dana, Haynen, & Burdetter, 1974) and readily accessible others in their social system (Brandon, 1970). Some evidence exists to suggest that in many instances peers and/or other nonprofessionals communicate as effectively as professionals and in some situations more so (Johnson, Hanson, & Rothaus, 1967; Kaplan, Boyajian & Meltzer, 1970; and Sadawitz & Hirschman, 1975). Moreover, while trained helpers have assumed a focal role in many research studies, the majority of

such studies have been concerned with the helpee's response(s) rather than the communication behaviors of the helpers (Hill & Kinsey, 1977; Lavelle, 1977; and Seay & Altekruse, 1979).

The present study was designed to compare the verbal responses of trained and untrained helpers confronted with the same crisis situation. A crisis, according to Schwartz (1971), is an accidental period of acute disorganication of affective, cognitive and behavioral functioning caused by stressful life experience. The general questions of interest are: (1) Do trained helpers actually make use of the types of verbal responses suggested by their training? and (2) Do untrained individuals instinctively adapt to the therapeutic process and use similar verbal responses without benefit of training? The approach embraced here is unique because the responses of untrained helpers to crisis have been ignored and the usual research paradigm examines only the helpee's responses to the helper's communication behavior rather than the reverse. In this study the helpees are confederates who simulate a crisis and the variables of interest are the helpers' responses.

Background

Appropriate responses to a crisis situation have been theoretically developed. Miller (1965), for example, has identified the communication behaviors to be displayed by a trained helper in a crisis situation as listening intelligently, encouraging the production of relevant historical and current life data by asking pertinent questions, offering understanding reassurance, encouraging and accepting emotional discharge and insight, interpreting associations at the proper time, and waiting for and guiding the client in the exploration of his or her problem. This list, however, is based essentially on personal observations that are somewhat limited in scope.

Caplan's (1970) outline of the intervention techniques used by professional helpers in the crisis situation includes assessment of the helpee and

his/her setting, verbal focus on understanding the client, and nonverbal focus on the case. Rusk (1971) and Beers and Foreman's (1976) adaptation of Rusk, present one of the clearest outlines of communication behaviors to be used by professionals. Their list includes the helper presenting him or herself as one who is concerned, understanding and effective; one who focuses the discussion on the helpee's affect and encourages affective expressions about the crisis inducing situation. In addition, the helper ought to make a comprehensive statement that formulates the helpee's problem, suggest strategies to improve or resolve the crisis-inducing stress, and review the mutually determined strategy for relief of the stress.

Several studies have dealt specifically with the response modes of trained helpers (Demos & Zuwaylif, 1962; Jones, 1967; Munger & Johnson, 1960; Munger, Myers, & Brown, 1963; Rochester, 1967; and Wilson & Johnson, 1974). Unfortunately, all of these studies were based on trained helpers' perceptions of how they might behave in a therapeutic encounter rather than observation of actual behavior. One study, however, did compare perceptions with actual behavior. Hopke (1955) measured trained helpers' perceptions of their own behavior using Porter's (1950) "Counseling Pre-Test" and then compared those perceptions with actual behavior in interview settings. After completing Porter's test, subjects were audio taped during interviews with clients. The interviews were transcribed, analyzed and each verbal statement was coded as one of five response types: evaluative, interpretive, supportive, probing, and understanding. Unfortunately, the author did not report the frequency of response modes used during actual interviews, but simply computed correlations between pre-test scores and behavior.

No research deals specifically with the responses of untrained helpers to a crisis situation. A few studies do, however, report results of lay helpers and/or those who are minimally trained. For example, Knickerbocker (1972) found that lay volunteers in a crisis intervention center offered significantly greater

amounts of empathy and warmth to clients than did professional trainees and trainers. Lay volunteers elicited significantly higher levels of client self-exploration and talked for longer periods of time. In addition, empathy and warmth were found to be positively related to outcome measures of anxiety change scores, depression change scores, and levels of client self-exploration. Strupp (1973) compared the performance of trained helpers with different levels of experience. Those less experienced demonstrated a higher preference for exploratory questions than did those with more extensive experience.

Berger and Calabrese (1975) suggest an explanation for the use of probing responses by untrained helpers when they note that high levels of uncertainty contribute to increases in information seeking behavior. As uncertainty levels decline, information seeking behavior will decrease. Since the untrained helper would presumably experience greater uncertainty than one more thoroughly trained, one would expect a comparatively greater use of questions and other probing techniques on the part of those who are relatively untrained.

Finally, research is inconclusive concerning differences between male and female helpers. Henley's (1977) review of sex differences in communication concludes: "In study after study, men have been found to speak more often and at greater length than women, and to interrupt other speakers more than women do" (p. 74). Steinman (1974), however, indicates that the "passive" woman is not as prevalent in dyadic encounters since the liberation movement reached its greatest level of influence. Her research on change in female roles and expectations during the last twenty years suggests that females will speak more frequently than males. Bardwick (1974) found that in a therapeutic encounter males were identified as more aggressive, assertive, and hostile than were women.

The crisis situation is generally understood to call for a greater understanding of affective needs rather than simple appreciation of tasks and problems. Consequently, one might expect the traditional male and female roles to be

reversed, i.e., females might respond more frequently since the situation demands use of the communication skills traditionally associated with females. In short, because the research is contradictory, this study tested for sex differences, but formal hypotheses were not tendered.

Hypotheses and Research Questions

Based on the available literature, the following hypotheses were posited:

1) In a crisis situation, untrained helpers will use probing responses more than any other response type.
2) In a crisis situation, untrained helpers will use understanding responses less frequently than any other response type.
3) Trained helpers will use understanding responses more frequently than any other response type.
4) Untrained helpers will use more probing responses than trained helpers.
5) Trained helpers will use more understanding responses than untrained helpers.

Since research about sex-related differences in communication response patterns is contradictory, the following research questions were posed:

1) Will female or male helpers respond more frequently across all response categories in a crisis situation?
2) Will female or male helpers use fewer responses across all response categories with a helpee of the same sex?

Methodology

Response Types

Portor's (1950) "Counseling Pre-Test" consists of twenty-five excerpts from therapeutic interviews. Each excerpt constitutes an expression by a client concerning an aspect of the situation s/he faces. Following each statement is a series of five responses. Each option represents one of the following response types: evaluative, interpretive, supportive, probing, and understanding. To test

the appropriateness and comprehensiveness of this coding system, a questionnaire was administered to 155 undergraduate students to determine the types of responses given in a crisis situation. The researchers wanted to identify any coping responses not included in the original inventory. Students were asked to respond in their own words to a hypothetical situation. Based on an analysis of the results of the questionnaire and a pilot study,[1] the verbal responses of interest were defined as follows:

1) probing: the response indicates that the subject's intent is to gather information, or provoke further discussion along a certain line. The subject in some ways implies that the other person ought to or might profitably develop or discuss a point further.

2) understanding: the response indicates that the subject's intent is to respond by paraphrasing what s/he heard the other person saying and asking for clarification. This response would be typical of the Rogerian reflection of feeling approach.

3) interpretive: the response indicates that the subject's intent is to teach, to impart meaning. Often times it is an attempt to analyze the other person's position for him or her.

4) evaluative: the response indicates that the subject has made a judgment of relative goodness, appropriateness, or rightness.

5) diverting: the response does not deal directly with the issue but instead attempts to change the topic, laugh it off, or simply ignore the interaction.

6) reinforcing: the response indicates that the subject's intent is to reassure, to reduce the other person's intensity of feeling, or to pacify. This category includes <u>only</u> <u>positive</u> empathic type statements.

7) self-disclosing: the response indicates that that subject is revealing information about him or herself, or shares common experiences.

8) advising: the response indicates that the subject is suggesting solutions or providing alternatives for the helpee.

Crisis

The cover story was determined as follows: seventy-six undergraduate students were asked to identify "problem or crisis issues you know students are dealing with frequently." From these responses, fifteen different crisis situations were identified. A second questionnaire was administered to these same students that listed the common crisis situations. This time students were asked to "rank order the following crisis situations typically faced by college students in terms of ones you hear most frequently talked about among your college friends." As a result of this survey, the crisis used in this study centered on an individual's failure in school.

Confederates

Four student actors (two male and two female) were recruited to serve as confederates, i.e., to play the role of the helpee who experiences a crisis revolving around academic failure. Approximately four hours were spent in training the actors in the use of the cover story. The principal author role-played the helper and each actor practiced using the cover story and responding to potential interview questions and other types of responses. The use of video tape allowed each actor to view his/her own performance as well as that by the other three actors. All four actors were instructed to maintain as consistent a story as possible across all interviews.

Subjects and Procedures

Seventy-two subjects (helpers) participated in the study: twenty-four trained helpers (graduate students in Guidance and Counseling), twenty-four untrained helpers (undergraduate students enrolled in a basic communication

course), and twenty-four untrained graduate students in communication. Since graduate students are typically five or six years older than freshmen and sophomores, the second group of untrained graduate students was added in an effort to determine if response differences, if any, might be due to training alone or to a combination of training and age. The number of subjects was estimated from a power test on pilot study data. A minimum of three cases per cell were required to detect a treatment effect in response type. The subject pool was sufficiently large to permit six cases per cell. Each subject was assigned to a dyad with a male or female confederate to form the following experimental conditions: (1) male helpee (confederate) and male helper (subject); (2) male helpee (confederate) and female helper (subject); (3) female helpee (confederate) and female helper (subject); and (4) female helpee (confederate) and male helper (subject).

All subjects were asked to participate in an interview with an undergraduate student (the confederate) for the purpose of studying interview techniques. Interviews took place in a medium sized conference room. The pair was instructed to discuss any problem or concern the confederate might have (although the confederate was not identified as such). The researcher left, saying she/he would return in about 10-15 minutes. Following the experimenter's departure, the confederate expressed concern over an academic problem she/he was currently having (receiving failing marks in a course). The confederate exhibited nervous behavior during the introductory phase of the interview and became increasingly distressed. All seventy-two interactions were unobtrusively video taped through an outside window, with a microphone hidden in the research room. After ten minutes of dialogue, the researcher re-entered the room and debriefed the subject. Of 72 subjects only 5 indicated suspicion about being video taped. Of those five only one reported suspicion strong enough to affect

behavior, consequently that subject was replaced.

Raters

Four raters were trained for approximately five hours in the use of the category system. One of the raters was an experienced counselor; the others were graduate students in non therapeutically oriented disciplines. Several video tapes which were not part of the study were used in training the raters. They viewed all seventy-two interactions and coded every verbal response made by a helper into one of the eight categories. The researchers indicated the beginning and end of each response to be coded. Three criteria were used in determining the unit of analysis. First, Gouran's (1969) definition of a statement determined the general unit: " . . . the continuous flow of language to a participant to the point at which another participant discontinues his." The definition was further refined in two respects. If within a continuous flow of language the helper altered the response theme, raters were instructed to rate again; also, if the helper continued the same theme, but talked for longer than fifteen seconds, the raters were instructed to rate again. In this way weight was given to each response mode such that its usage was dependent not only on how frequently it was used, but also on the amount of time spent using it.

The reliability of the coding system, defined as the degree of agreement among raters on the placement of verbal responses into the various categories, was determined. A total of 3,840 ratings were made (two raters were used for every interaction). Of these, 3,275 showed agreement between pairs of raters for an interrater reliability coefficient of .85. The validity or inclusiveness of the response types was also checked by administering a questionnaire to 155 students which asked for possible responses in a crisis situation. Indications were that the revised eight category system adequately accounted for all types of verbal responses made during the crisis situation.[2]

Statistical Design

The problem called for a 3 x 2 x 2 x 8 split plot design (Kirk, 1968) with three levels of training, sex of confederate, sex of subject, and eight response categories. The raters' records of frequency of occurrence of the subjects' verbal responses was converted to percentages based on the total number of responses for each subject. The results were analyzed by analysis of variance across the eight response categories. An analysis was completed on both the frequency of occurrence as well as the percent of total number of responses.

Results

The subjects' verbal responses were classified in three ways: frequency of response type, total number of responses, and the ratio of response type to total. The most meaningful index was the percentage of each response type. Such an index takes into account the number of times a response type was used in relation to the total number of responses. Table 1 reports the results of an

Table I about here

analysis of variance on the percentage of response types across the groups and sex variables. Response types across all subjects were significant ($p < .01$) and follow-up analyses using Scheffe tests indicated that the probing response was used a significantly greater percentage of the time than any other response type and was followed by understanding and advising respectively.[3]

Differences across response types within groups and differences among groups across response types were examined. The interaction was analyzed by means of simple main-effects tests. Kirk (1968) suggests that the overall significance level be divided evenly among the collection of simple main-effects tests. Thus, a significance level of .05 becomes .017 for each of the three groups. Results of the simple main-effect test for response types by trained helpers was signi-

ficant ($F=85.40$, $df=7,420$, $p<.01$). Results of the simple main-effect test for response types by untrained graduate helpers was significant ($F=55.77$, $df=7,420$, $p<.01$) and so were the results of the simple main-effect test for response type by untrained undergraduate helpers ($F=36.04$, $df=7,420$, $p<.01$). Determination of differences among response types for each group was completed by application of Scheffe tests. For trained helpers significant differences were found in the following rank order comparisons: between probing and understanding responses, and between understanding and interpretive responses.[4] Thus, trained helpers used probing responses most frequently, followed by understanding responses which were used a significantly greater number of times than the other six categories.

For untrained graduate helpers Scheffe tests revealed that probing was used significantly more often than any other type of response and was followed by advising.[5] Finally, for untrained undergraduate helpers, significant differences were found among the ranked means for the probing and advising response comparison.[6]

Analysis was also executed among groups across response types. All eight response types were submitted to simple main-effects tests. A significant level of .006 was appropriate for eight simple main-effects tests. Four response types were statistically significant: understanding ($F=63.63$, $df=2,60$, $p<.005$), self-disclosing ($F=17.94$, $df=2,60$, $p<.005$), advising ($F=71.60$, $df=2,60$, $p<.005$), and probing ($F=14.57$, $df=2,60$, $p<.005$). Scheffe tests indicated the following significant comparisons: trained helpers used understanding responses a significantly greater percentage of the time than either the untrained graduate helpers or the untrained undergraduate helpers (mean difference of 23.33 and 24.37 respectively); both untrained groups used self-disclosing responses a significantly greater percentage of the time than did trained helpers (mean difference of 6.20

between trained helpers and untrained graduate helpers and 14.58 between trained helpers and untrained undergraduate helpers), and untrained undergraduate helpers used self-disclosing responses more frequently than untrained graduate helpers (mean differences of 10.08 and 15.58 respectively, indicating that untrained helpers used an advising response more often than did trained helpers). Finally, for the probing response, untrained undergraduate helpers probed a significantly smaller percentage of the time than either the trained helpers (mean difference of 12.67) or the untrained graduate helpers (mean difference of 9.51).

All of the differences for the groups are depicted in Figure 1. A

Figure 1 about here

horizontal comparison of bars on the histogram indicates that all three groups used probing responses most often. A vertical comparison reveals that trained helpers used understanding responses a greater percentage of time than the untrained groups, while the untrained groups used the advising and self-disclosing responses more than the trained group.

Finally, examination of response differences was executed on the total number of responses used by all three groups. Analysis of variance tests were significant and follow-up procedures indicated that untrained graduate helpers responded significantly more frequently than the trained helpers (mean difference of 8.12).

Discussion

The first hypothesis stated that untrained helpers would use probing responses more frequently than other response types. The hypothesis was confirmed. Both the untrained graduate helpers and the untrained undergraduate helpers used probing responses a significantly greater percentage of the time than any other response type. The untrained helpers' use of probing responses

is consistent with the results of Strupp's (1975) investigation. In both cases, inexperienced helpers show a preference for the use of questions. One possible explanation for this behavior is suggested by Berger and Calabrese (1975). Helpers (or communicators) who experience uncertainty will increase information seeking behavior. To expect untrained helpers to experience uncertainty when faced with a crisis seems reasonable.

Hypothesis two stated that untrained helpers would use understanding responses less frequently than other response types. This hypothesis was confirmed. Both untrained groups used understanding responses less frequently than probing, advising, and self-disclosing responses. Understanding responses clustered with other infrequently used response types including, interpreting, diverting, and evaluating. Understanding responses, as previously noted, are rather sophisticated helping responses patterned after the Rogerian reflection of feeling technique. Thus, individuals would not normally use this response without specific training or unusual insight and skill. Wilson and Johnson (1974) demonstrated that an individual's selection of understanding responses increased only after counseling training. The results of this study are consistent with the position that the understanding response is a unique therapeutic technique acquired through specialized training.

Hypothesis three, which suggested that trained helpers would use understanding responses more frequently than other response types, was not unequivocally confirmed. Probing responses were used more frequently than understanding responses however, trained helpers did use understanding responses a significantly greater percentage of the time than all other response types, exclusive of probing. Two explanations may account for the understanding response assuming a secondary, but still significant position in terms of frequency of use. First, Berger and

Calabrese's suggestion that when one is less confident, information-seeking behavior will increase, may apply to trained helpers as well as those who are untrained. This study examined an initial interaction between a helper and a helpee. At the beginning of an encounter, apprehension is likely to be greater for all individuals, regardless of training. At least initially, trained helpers require information to clarify the situation and build confidence as much as untrained helpers, and consequently may employ substantial information seeking behavior. Second, it seems reasonable to suspect that trained helpers might have employed understanding responses more extensively had the interactions been of longer duration.

The fourth hypothesis contended that untrained helpers would use more probing responses than trained helpers. This hypothesis was not confirmed. In fact, when using percentage data for analysis, just the opposite was true. Trained helpers used more probing responses than either of the untrained groups. The use of the probing response was the only result that differed between the analyses of frequency and percentage data. When percentage data were analyzed, trained helpers used probing responses a significantly larger proportion of the time than either untrained graduate helpers or untrained undergraduate helpers. When frequency data were analyzed, however, the untrained graduate helpers used probing responses most, with no significant difference between trained helpers and untrained undergraduate helpers.

There are two possible explanations for reversal in the hypothesized use of the probing response. As previously noted, the length of time for the interaction may have caused an increase in the use of probing responses for all subjects. The helper usually begins by "asking questions and using observational skills to obtain factual knowledge about the problem area" (Aguilera and Messick, 1974, p. 58). Since trained helpers also used understanding responses a greater

percentage of the time than all other responses (exclusive of the probing response), it is likely that the brief period of interaction time obscured or cut short the opportunity to employ understanding responses. Untrained helpers, however, used probing more than any other response. Their second ranked response, advising, was not significantly different in frequency of occurrence from other response types. Thus, untrained helpers may continue to use probing responses well into the encounter. Second, trained helpers responded less frequently across all response categories than untrained helpers. Consequently, probing responses make up a larger proportion of the responses used by trained helpers than by untrained helpers. Only when frequency data was analyzed did trained helpers use significantly fewer probing responses than untrained graduate helpers. In other words, while a larger percentage of the trained helpers' time was spent using probing responses, they actually used a fewer number of these responses than those who were untrained.

Hypothesis five also focused on differences between trained and untrained helpers' verbal responses. The expectation was that trained helpers would use more understanding responses than untrained helpers. The hypothesis was confirmed. Trained helpers use understanding responses a significantly greater percentage of the time than either of the untrained groups. Consistent with the rationale underlying hypothesis three, untrained helpers would be less likely to use this specific counseling technique because they lack training in its use.

The preceding results support the conclusion that trained helpers in dealing with a crisis use specific counseling techniques acquired through training, particularly the use of understanding responses. Furthermore, it is clear that untrained helpers do not instinctively use understanding responses.

The effects of training versus age and maturity level was also of interest in this study. In the preceding analyses, scores for the untrained graduate

helpers and the untrained undergraduate helpers usually clustered together. Significant differences, for the most part, occurred between the trained helpers and the two untrained groups. This pattern suggests that training, not age, accounts for the largest proportion of difference in the verbal responses of helpers.

Finally, observation of the video tapes suggests that while all three groups used probing responses, the trained helpers were more skilled at asking direct questions. Untrained helpers often asked general questions that did not appear to be particularly productive with regard to the counseling process. Future studies of this nature should bifurcate the probing response into direct and indirect probes. While the hypotheses were concerned with differences between trained and untrained helpers in response to a perceived crisis, a secondary concern focuses on sex differences in response patterns.

Two research questions were posed. First, is there any difference between the response frequencies of male and female helpers? Table II reports the results of an analysis of variance on the total number of responses made across the categories. Significant effects for sex of helper as well as sex of

Table II about here

confederate are indicated. Table III summarizes the results of Scheffe tests among all possible comparisons between sex of helper and sex of confederate. Significant differences were found between the following dyad types: male

Table III about here

confederate/male helper and female confederate/female helper; and male

confederate/female helper and female confederate/female helper. Inspection of the means for the sex of helper condition reveals that the average mean for male helpers differs from the average mean for female helpers by 5.53. Thus, female helpers responded significantly more frequently than males ($p<.05$). In addition, female confederates received significantly more responses than male confederates (a difference of 10.42 was significant at the .05 level).

A related question was: will female or male helpers use fewer responses across all response categories with a helpee of the same sex? An examination of the mean differences reveals that more responses were given in the female to female interactions than in the male to male interactions. In this investigation females typically responded more frequently than males. This finding, in a sense, challenges Henley's conclusion that "studies show that men have been found to speak more often and at greater length than women," although the context explored here is admittedly highly focused. Generally, the results suggest that in this particular setting, the traditional male and female communicative roles may be reversed. The crisis situation calls for understanding affective needs rather than a pure task analysis. Females may be responding more frequently because the situation demands use of the communication skills traditionally possessed by females.

Conclusion

This study contributes to our knowledge of the specific communication behaviors exhibited by helpers in response to a crisis experienced by another. Clearly, there are both similarities and differences in how trained and untrained persons verbally respond. Additionally, both the sex of the helpee and the helper make a difference in frequency of response. Given that response differences exist between those who are trained and those who are untrained and

that many people turn toward untrained associates for assistance, the next step is to determine what variables influence the selection of an appropriate helper. At least two considerations are pertinent. First, to what extent does the nature or severity of the crisis dictate whether one turns for help to someone who is trained or someone who is untrained? Second, and just as important, how satisfying and useful is the help received respectively from trained and untrained helpers? These questions will require additional research, but their answers ought to enable us to determine when a difference in training makes a difference in therapeutic effectiveness.

Notes

[1]The pilot study is reported in DeWine, S. & Alterson, S., 1977.

[2]Reliability tests on inclusiveness of the coding system are reported in greater detail in DeWine, S., 1977.

[3]Significant difference on Scheffe tests at the .05 level is 5.58 based on 2, 568 degrees of freedom. The mean of the probing response was 41.56. The next most frequently used response was understanding with a mean of 13.43 (a significant mean difference of 28.13). Advising was the next most frequently used response with a mean of 12.51 (a mean difference of 29.05 between probing and advising).

[4]Significant difference on the Scheffe test at the .05 level is 9.78, based on 7,184 degrees of freedom. The mean of the probing response was 46.83, and understanding was 29.33 (a significant mean difference of 17.50). Interpretive had a mean of 11.13 (a significant mean difference between understanding and interpretive of 18.20).

[5]The mean for probing was 43.66, advising 14.04 (a significant mean difference of 29.62).

[6]The mean for probing was 34.17 and advising 19.54 (a mean difference of 14.68.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
FOR PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSE TYPES

Source of Variation	Mean Square	df	F-ratio	p
Between Subjects:				
A (Groups)	37.97	2	2.63	< .10
B (Sex of Confederate)	71.54	1	4.96	< .05
C (Sex of Helper)	.39	1	.03	ns
AB	17.76	2	1.23	ns
AC	19.85	2	1.38	ns
BC	1.08	1	.07	ns
ABC	32.46	2	2.25	ns
Subj. w. ABC	14.42	60		
Within Subjects:				
D (Response Types)	11557.55	7	144.87	< .01
AD	1277.35	14	16.01	< .01
BD	118.74	7	1.49	ns
CD	100.54	7	1.26	ns
ABD	86.75	14	1.09	ns
ACD	79.81	14	1.00	ns
BCD	43.91	7	.55	ns
ABCD	74.86	14	.94	ns
D by Subj. s. ABC	79.78	420		
	Total	575		

Figure 1

HISTOGRAM FOR PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSE TYPES

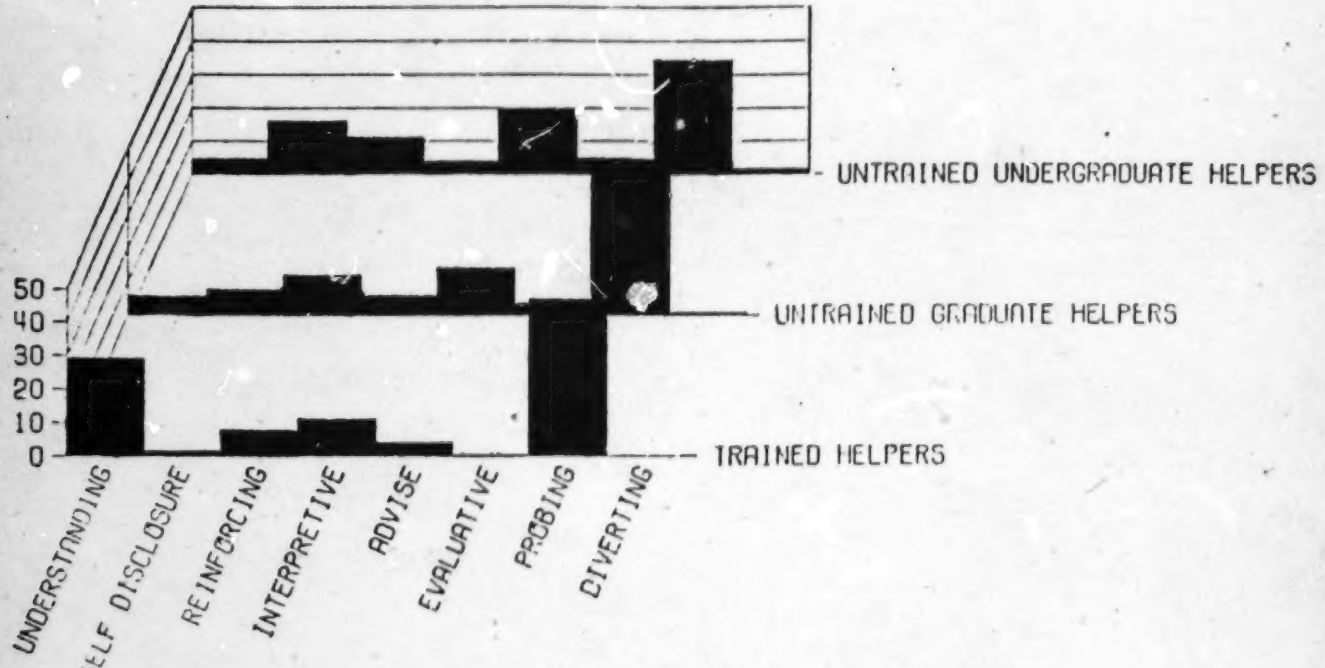

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
ON TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES

Source of Variation	Mean Square	df	F-Ratio	p
Between Subjects:				
A (Groups)	450.35	2	4.21	< .05
B (Sex of confederate)	1953.13	1	18.24	< .01
C (Sex of Helper)	550.01	1	5.14	< .05
AB	92.38	2	.86	ns
AC	74.68	2	.70	ns
BC	3.13	1	.03	ns
ABC	50.37	2	.47	ns
Within Subjects:				
(Residual)	107.10	60		
	Total	71		

TABLE III

MEAN DIFFERENCES FOR TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONSES FOR SEX OF CONFEDERATE BY SEX OF HELPER

Confederate	Helper	Means	Male		Female		Mean difference for significance
			Male	Female	Male	Female	
			19.67	24.78	29.67	35.61	
Male	Male	19.67	---	5.11	*10.00	*14.95	9.93
	Female	24.78		---	4.89	*10.83	
Female	Male	29.67			---	5.94	
	Female	35.61				---	

* Significant difference on Scheffe test at .05 level based on $F_{(3,69)}$.

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